TRENDS IN ADOLESCENT LIFESTYLES IN THE OUTAOUAIS

1991 - 1996 - 2002

RESULTS FOR THE ANGLOPHONE STUDENTS OF THE WESTERN QUEBEC SCHOOL BOARD

RÉGIE RÉGIONALE
DE LA SANTÉ ET DES
SERVICES SOCIAUX
DE L'OUTAOUAIS
DIRECTION DE SANTÉ PUBLIQUE

TRENDS IN ADOLESCENT LIFESTYLES IN THE OUTAOUAIS 1991 – 1996 – 2002

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INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is a major developmental milestone, during which individuals reach physical maturity, develop more sophisticated reasoning ability, and acquire the social and intellectual skills required for their adult roles and responsibilities. Biological, cognitive, and psychological changes expose individuals to a variety of experiences. These experiences include lifestyle choices which may either be beneficial to the adolescent or which may compromise his or her health. Risk behaviour, such as cigarette smoking, alcohol and drug use, or having unprotected sex, is usually initiated during adolescence.

While there exists some continuity between certain behaviours and personality traits observed through childhood and adolescence, many other factors come into play to modify adolescents' behaviour during this period in their development. Among others, social and cultural contexts-that is to say family, peers, school and community-strongly influence adolescents' choices. Many studies have established the link between family, school and community environment and adolescent wellbeing. These environments also play an important role in the prevention of psychosocial maladjustment.

While most adolescents get through this developmental period without any major difficulties and do succeed in accessing opportunities that are available to them, many do not. These adolescents deal with ongoing problems which threaten their development as well as their hopes for the future. These developmental threats manifest themselves in a number of ways, such as psychological distress, suicide ideation, drug abuse, violent behaviour, and so on. These problems do not exist in isolation, they are intricately related and often arise in comorbidity.

The present study of adolescent lifestyles in the Outaouais is the fourth in a series begun in 1985 and repeated at regular intervals. It thus allows for the observation of trends for various behaviours over a 15-year period. While the first study (1985) was essentially a measure of the prevalence of drug use in the region, the following waves have all included measures of psychosocial adjustment and taken into account a number of emerging phenomena in the youth population.

This present report is intended to provide the reader with a brief overview of adolescent lifestyles in the Anglophone population of the Outaouais, 1991-1996-2002. Its purpose is not to compare the Anglophone sample with the Francophone sample, or with the total sample of students surveyed. It is a descriptive report. An exhaustive report presenting results for the entire adolescent population of the region, *Styles de vie des jeunes du secondaire en Outaouais, 1991-1996-2002*, was completed prior to this document. Its sample includes both Francophone and Anglophone students in all four territories and it offers data comparing trends through time, between gender, across age groups and territories.

The present report, however, presents data for a much smaller sample of students. As a result, data can only be presented for comparing trends through time or according to gender, since the numbers divided by age group or territory are not sufficient for valid analysis. In addition, the size of this subsample did not allow for the presentation of a detailed analysis of each theme found in the original report. Consequently, some of the themes found in the original report are not presented in this one. It should also be noted that the Anglophone students represented in this report attend schools of the Western Quebec School Board and are thus spread throughout the Outaouais region.

METHOD

The data in the present report is for a subsample from three studies whose participants were students aged 12 to 18 years in every secondary school of the Outaouais, including Francophone, Anglophone, private, and public schools. For a more thorough description of the study sample, readers are asked to refer to the original report *Styles de vie des jeunes du secondaire en Outaouais, 1991-1996-2002*. The Anglophone sample refers to 361 students in 1991, 528 students in 1996 and 410 students in 2002, all from the Western Quebec School Board.

Data collection procedures were established in order to maximize result validity and reliability and were maintained for the three waves starting in 1991. For all three waves, data was collected through a self-report survey, completed in class at the beginning of May. Students were asked to provide informed consent once the objectives of the study were explained to them.

Most of the themes covered in 2002 are the same as those covered in 1991 and 1996, as are many of the questions and scales used for those themes. Some new themes, taking emerging phenomena into account, were added in 2002. These included self-efficacy, parental supervision, themes related to academic performance, consequences of paid work, gambling and body art. Instruments used to document these themes were chosen because they offer the possibility of comparison with national samples, as well as having tested psychometric qualities. For a more detailed account of data collecting procedures, and a description of scales, readers are asked to refer to the original report. Furthermore, theoretical frameworks and full references are available in the original report, which also includes a detailed description of the methodology for each subsection of the study.

Analysis of the data for this study was mainly descriptive. Results were ajusted for age and sexe (with the 1991 sample as the sample of reference) and weighed by school, in order to represent the school's actual share of the total sample.

Gender differences observed in 2002 were statistically tested using confidence intervals, with a significance level of 95 %, as were differences observed between two proportions (ie. 1996 and 2002). Differences observed across the three periods of time, 1991, 1996 and 2002 were deemed significant at an alpha value of 0,017. References to significant differences are thus based on these values, proportions with the same alphabetical exponent in the Tables are significantly different.

It should be noted that in the results portion of this report, the term "student" refers to Anglophone students of the Western Quebec School Board.

1 : SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

A number of psychological and social problems, such as psychological distress, suicide ideation, drug and alcohol abuse, delinquent and violent behaviour, vary according to sociodemographic variables. For example, these problems usually increase with age. Also, studies have shown that girls have a higher rate of suicide ideation and of psychological distress than boys, as well as having lower self-esteem. Boys, on the other hand, are more likely than girls to abuse drugs and alcohol, to be involved in delinquent or violent behaviour, to have gambling problems and to commit suicide. On the whole, girls manifest more internalised adjustment difficulties whereas boys manifest their adjustment problems externally.

Results

While students were evenly distributed in both sexes in 1991 and 1996, girls make up a larger proportion of the sample than boys in 2002. Students are evenly distributed across grades.

In 2002, the majority (61 %) of students live with both parents, a significant decrease from proportions observed in 1991 and 1996 (table 1). The number of single parent families with the mother as head of household has increased since 1991. In 2002, "joint custody arrangement" was added as a possible living arrangement. A small number of students (7 %) indicated that they lived with such an arrangement.

TABLE 1 : Distribution of students (%) according to family structure, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	1991	1996	2002
Traditional (both parents)	69,7 [a]	69,7 [b]	60,8 [a,b]
Single parent family (mother)	7,8 [c]	10,5	13,4 [c]
Single parent family (father)	4,8	3,1	2,4
Stepfamily with mother	10,1	9,6	7,1
Stepfamily with father	1,1 [d]	3,5 [d]	2,2
Joint custody arrangement	..		6,6
Other	6,4	3,5 [e]	7,5 [e]

a-e : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

2 : SELF-ESTEEM AND SELF-EFFICACY

Definition

Self-esteem is defined as the overall appreciation of oneself. It can also be seen as a multidimensional construct, where the value an individual ascribes himself varies depending on the specific domain he or she is evaluating. These domains may be academic, interpersonal or social, moral or ethical. Other dimensions may also be considered in domain-specific self-esteem, such as physical appearance, work skills, sports performance and romantic performance.

Self-efficacy is believed to reflect an individual's beliefs in his ability to organize his knowledge and his skills in order to accomplish certain tasks necessary to reach a goal he or she values. It is defined as an individuals' beliefs about his ability to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect his life.

Method

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was used to determine students' global self-esteem. Domain specific self-esteem was measured using Harter's Competence Scale for Children and the Osgood semantic differential. These items refer to academic self-esteem, social self-esteem and physical appearance.

Global self-efficacy was measured using Sherer and Maddux' General Self-Efficacy Scale. The scale is composed of two subscales, one of which measures global self-efficacy, the other measuring social self-efficacy. Only the first subscale was used in the present study.

Results

Self-esteem

In 2002, most students (82 %) indicate that they are satisfied with who they are and 88 % of them feel that they possess a number of good qualities (table 2). Nevertheless, significantly fewer students than in 1996 indicated in 2002 that they had a positive attitude about themselves (1996: 85 %; 2002 78 %). On a positive note, fewer students than in 1996 said that they felt uncomfortable in activities involving other teenagers (1996: 31 %; 2002: 23 %).

TABLE 2 : Frequencies (%) for students who "agreed" or "strongly agreed" with the statements pertaining to self-esteem, by gender, 1996, and 2002

	Girls		Boys		Total	
	1996	2002	1996	2002	1996	2002
On the whole, I'm satisfied with who I am	83,1 [a]	71,6 [a]	89,6	92,8	86,3	82,4
Sometimes, I think I'm good for nothing	45,4	43,0	27,8	22,3	36,6	32,5
I feel I have a number of good qualities	84,3	83,7	95,0	92,8	89,6	88,3
I can do things as well as anyone else my age	76,9	75,5	87,3	86,0	82,1	80,8
I don't have much to be proud of	22,7	24,9	15,0	12,6	18,8	18,6
Sometimes I feel quite useless	42,5	45,2	30,0	27,5	36,3	36,2
I feel that I have worth, at least as much as the next person	80,2	71,4	81,7	83,7	81,0	77,6
It's hard for me to accept myself as I am	28,4	37,3	15,4	15,5	21,9	26,2
All in all, I'm inclined to think that I'm a failure	15,1	16,7	9,3	10,7	12,2	13,6
I have a positive attitude about myself	78,8 [b]	66,7 [b]	90,4	88,8	84,6 [c]	77,9 [c]
I find it hard to make new friends	24,8	18,9	24,4	19,8	24,6	19,4
I'm think I'm a person who learns easily	70,7	68,2	80,2	74,4	75,4	71,3
I have trouble standing up for my opinions	34,2	31,3	30,1	30,0	32,2	30,6
In general, I'm disappointed with my marks at school	50,6	44,5	50,8	48,1	50,7	46,3
I feel uncomfortable in group activities with other young people	35,7	25,5	26,4	21,3	31,0	23,3
I'm shy with other young people of the opposite sex	24,0	20,4	34,9	27,1	29,5 [d]	23,8 [d]
I'm as intelligent as anyone else	73,1	69,7	81,0	82,1	77,0	76,0
I'm dissatisfied with my physical appearance	40,8	45,5	28,0	18,8	34,4	31,9

a-d : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

Results by gender show that the proportion of girls who are satisfied with who they are decreased from 83 % in 1996 to 72 % in 2002. The proportion of girls who had a positive attitude about themselves also decreased significantly, from 79 % in 1996 to 67 % in 2002. No significant changes between 1996 and 2002 were observed for boys.

Gender differences were apparent in mean scores for global self-esteem, where boys scored significantly higher than girls in 2002, as they had in 1996. Boys also scored significantly higher than girls on the academic self-esteem subscale.

Self-efficacy

Most students (85 %) felt that when they care about a project, they can do what it takes to make it work (table 3). A majority (70 %) of students feel capable of meeting the challenges they face, while 61 % also indicated that they keep trying if they don't get something right the first time. More than half (58 %) believe that failure pushes them to work harder.

TABLE 3 : Frequencies (%) for students who indicated that the statements pertaining to global self-efficacy "pretty much" or "very much" described them, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
When I care about a project, I'm sure I can do what it takes so it works	83,9	85,9	84,8
One of my problems is that I can't get down to work when I should	35,5 [a]	45,8 [a]	40,3
If I don't get something right the first time, I keep trying until I get it	56,7 [b]	66,3 [b]	61,2
I get frustrated fast when I have trouble	45,3	40,8	43,2
I don't feel capable of facing most of the problems that happen to me	22,1 [c]	12,0 [c]	17,4
Failing at something important to me makes me work twice as hard to get better at it	55,1	62,0	58,3
If I'm interested in an activity but it looks too complicated, I don't even bother trying	12,9	10,4	11,7
When I have to do something boring I do it anyway until it's done	46,1	47,9	46,9
When I want to do something, I often think I don't have what it takes to do it	14,6	10,9	12,8
I often give up on an activity or project before finishing it	11,6	12,0	11,8
When I decide to do something, I get started on it right away	37,7	44,3	40,8
When I try to learn something new, I give up fast if I'm not good at it right away	15,2	14,7	15,0
When I have an unexpected problem, I tend to get upset and to not know what to do	32,4 [d]	15,1 [d]	24,3
In general, I feel capable of meeting challenges that I care about	65,0 [e]	76,4 [e]	70,3

a-e : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

Some gender differences were observed for statements pertaining to self-efficacy. Boys were significantly more likely than girls to indicate that they have trouble getting down to work when they should, though they were also more likely to believe that if they don't get something right the first time, they keep trying and that they feel capable of meeting challenges that are important to them. Girls, on the other hand, were more likely than boys to indicate that they don't feel capable of facing their problems and that they get upset and don't know what to do when confronted with an unexpected problem.

The majority (61 %) of students had a moderate level of self-efficacy beliefs (table 4). One in four (25 %) students had a low level of self-efficacy beliefs while 14 % had a high level. A proportionally greater number of girls than boys displayed a low level of self-efficacy. No gender differences were observed in the two subscales, with a majority (56 %) of students displaying moderate levels of efficacy in the face of adversity, compared to 28 % displaying a low level of self-efficacy in this area. A majority (60 %) of students also presented a moderate level of self-efficacy in the perseverance and initiation subscale.

TABLE 4 : Distribution of students (%) according to their levels of self-efficacy (general and subscales), by gender, 2002

Distribution of students (%) according to their level of self-efficacy, by gender, 2002			
	Girls	**Boys**	**Total**
Low	28,6 [a]	20,2 [a]	24,6
Moderate	59,4	62,7	61,0
High	12	17,1	14,4
Distribution of students (%) according to their level of self-efficacy, efficacy in the face of adversity subscale, by gender, 2002			
	Girls	**Boys**	**Total**
Low	32,7	23,4	28,4
Moderate	53,6	58,3	55,7
High	13,8	18,2	15,9
Distribution of students (%) according to their level of self-efficacy, perseverance and initiation subscale, by gender, 2002			
	Girls	**Boys**	**Total**
Low	25,5	18,8	22,3
Moderate	57,9	59,4	58,6
High	16,7	21,9	19,1

a : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

3 : FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

Family constitutes the primary environment where a child develops the foundations of his personality and identity, and where a child seeks to fulfill his need for safety and love. It is also the primary context of socialization, and the behaviours and interactions witnessed and engaged in at home are reflected in children's behaviour in larger environments, such as school and the community.

Parental educational attainment and employment status are usually used as indicators of socioeconomic status of children. Low socioeconomic status is associated with health and psychological problems in childhood and adolescence, as are delinquent and violent behaviour and school failure.

Parents' mental health also impacts adolescent health and wellbeing. Children of parents who suffered from depression, drug or alcohol abuse are more likely to experience these difficulties themselves.

The parent-child relationship plays a most important role in the child's development, as it constitutes a factor of protection against psychosocial maladjustment. It includes parental responsiveness, psychological control and supervision. Parental warmth and responsiveness provide adolescents with security and stability while allowing them to develop their social and personal competence. Parental warmth refers to displays of affection, attention and positive feedback. Parental psychological control refers to parental psychological abuse and intrusion. Finally, parental supervision refers to parents setting rules for their adolescent's behaviour and being aware of how he or she spends his or her time.

Method

Parents' mental health history was measured by asking if they had suffered any of three problems : alcohol abuse, drug abuse, or major depression.

Parental responsiveness and psychological control were measured based on a scale developed for the 1991 study, inspired by instruments by Schaefer, Siegelman and Parker et al.

Levels of parental responsiveness and psychological control were established as follows :

Parental responsiveness:

1) high level : Students scored in the first three quintiles
2) moderate level : students scored in the 4 th quintile
3) low level : students scored in the 5 th quintile

Parental psychological control :

1) low level : Students scored in the first three quintiles
2) moderate level : students scored in the 4 th quintile
3) high level : students scored in the 5 th quintile

Parental supervision was assessed using an instrument developed by Lamborn et al., which asks students about how much their parents try to know and really know what they do with their time, as well as asking about rules pertaining to curfew.

Levels of parental supervision were determined using the questions pertaining to parents' knowledge of adolescents' activities. They were divided as follows:

1) High level of parental supervision : students scored in the 3rd tertile
2) Moderate level of parental supervision : students scored in the 2nd tertile
3) Low level of parental supervision : students scored in the 1st tertile.

Family violence was assessed by asking students if they had witnessed violent acts between their parents. Results are presented according to three categories: no violence, verbal abuse (excluding physical violence) and physical violence.

Results

Educational attainment and employment status

In 2002, the majority of students indicate that their parents have at least a high school diploma (73 % of mothers; 66 % of fathers) (table 5). In 2002, a significantly higher proportion of mothers than in 1991 have a college or university education, though this number remains unchanged for fathers. Fewer students indicated in 2002 that they knew what kind of education their fathers had compared to 1996.

TABLE 5 : Distribution of students (%) according to parents' educational attainment, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Mother			Father		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Primary education	5,3	4,0	3,2	9,5	10,2	7,3
High school education	41,4 [a]	35,7	30,0 [a]	34,8	31,6	32
College education	13,3 [b]	17,3	19,3 [b]	12,8	17,4	14,2
University education	17,2 [c]	22,2	24,1 [c]	19,2	21,1	20,0
Unknown	22,8	20,7	23,4	23,7	19,7 [d]	26,4 [d]

a-d : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

In 2002, most students indicated that their father is employed (93 %) (table 6). The proportion of mothers who are employed increased significantly since 1991 (78 %) and 1996 (75 %), reaching 84 % in 2002.

TABLE 6 : Distribution of students (%) according to parents' employment status, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Mother			Father		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Employed	78,0 [a]	74,8 [b]	83,7 [a,b]	96,2 [e]	91,7 [e]	93,4
Unemployed	22,0 [c]	25,2 [d]	16,3 [c,d]	3,8 [f]	8,3 [f]	6,6

a-f : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

Parents' mental health history

Few students indicated that either of their parent had suffered from mental health problems : 9 % of students indicated that their mother had suffered from depression, while 13 % indicated that their father had suffered from alcohol abuse (table 7).

TABLE 7 : Distribution of students (%) according to parents' mental health history, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Mother			Father		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Alcohol abuse	3,6	2,7	3,5	16,3	13,0	12,5
Drug abuse	1,9	1,9	2,7	1,1 [a]	1,6	3,8 [a]
Depression	6,7	6,8	8,7	6,4	4,7	5,1

a : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

Parent-adolescent relationship

A majority of students indicated that their mother compliments them (71 %) and is affectionate towards them (61 %) (table 8). Fewer students than in 1996 said that their mother has fun with them (2002 : 53 %; 1996 : 61 %). Most students also indicated that their mother encourages them to do their best (84 %) and to make more effort at school when they have trouble (80 %). Two thirds of students (66 %) said that their father compliments them, 61 % said that he has fun with them, and 42 % indicated that he is affectionate towards them. These proportions have increased significantly since 1991. One third (30 %) of students reported that their mother always tells them what to do (compared with 26 % for fathers), one in four (25 %) students also felt that their mother was always on their case (19 % for fathers), while one in seven (14 %) said that she looked through their things (4 % for fathers). These proportions have remained relatively stable since 1991, with the exception of the proportion of students who report a high level of parental responsiveness from their father, which has increased since 1991.

TABLE 8 : Distribution of students (%) who answered that their parents "often" or "very often"..., 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Mother			Father		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Compliments them	59,8 [a,b]	67,8 [a]	71,0 [b]	47,2 [e,f]	62,3 [e]	66,3 [f]
Is affectionate towards them	55,0	58,6	60,9	28,0 [g,h]	42,6 [g]	42,4 [h]
Has fun with them	52,8 [c]	60,6 [c,d]	53,0 [d]	49,8 [i,j]	62,6 [i]	60,8 [j]
Is too busy to talk	13,1	12,8	14,8	19,1	17,8	19,5
Always tells them what to do	34,3	33,6	30,3	27,5	20,6	25,7
Looks through their things	11,5	14,3	14,1	1,9 [k]	6,0 [k]	4,4
Is always on their case	18,9	23,1	24,7	15,9	17,3	19,4
Makes fun of them	5,0	6,0	5,4	4,7	7,9	6,1
Says hurtful things	5,1	7,4	7,0	11,2	9,8	8,2
Encourages them to do their best	–	–	84,1	–	–	77,1
Explains the reasons for asking them to do things	–	–	48,3	–	–	47,1
Encourages them to make more effort at school	–	–	80,4	–	–	76,5

a-k : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

- : non available for 1991 and 1996

Overall, in 2002, students were more likely to report a high level of parental responsiveness from their mother than from their father (61 % for mothers compared with 50 % for fathers) (table 9). One fifth of students reported a low level of parental responsiveness from both mother and father. As far as parental psychological control is concerned, 23 % of students reported a high level of control from their mother, while 19 % reported such a level from their father (table 10). A majority of students reported a low level of parental psychological control (53 % for mothers, 64 % for fathers). These proportions have remained relatively stable since 1991.

TABLE 9 : Distribution of students (%) according to level of parental responsiveness, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Mother			Father		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
High	55,5 [a]	63,3 [a]	60,7	36,4 [b,c]	52,1 [b]	49,6 [c]
Moderate	27,9	22,4	22,1	30,4	23,4	27,6
Low	16,6	14,2	17,2	33,2 [d,e]	24,5 [d]	22,8 [e]

a-e : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

TABLE 10 : Distribution of students (%) according to level of parental psychological control, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Mother			Father		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Low	56,5	54,6	53,3	63,4	68,3	63,6
Moderate	19,9	20,7	23,3	18,8	15,5	17,8
High	23,5	24,7	23,3	17,8	16,2	18,6

Violence at home

Most students (77 %) indicated in 2002 that they witnessed no violence between their parents (table 11). One in six students (18 %) say they have witnessed verbal abuse between their parents. The proportion of students reporting physical violence between their parents has significantly decreased since 1991, going from 11 % to 9 % in 1996 and 5 % in 2002. This decrease is mostly due to the one found in the proportion of girls reporting physical violence between their parents. (1991 : 12 %; 1996 : 11 %; 2002 : 5 %).

TABLE 11 : Distribution of students (%) according to the degree of violence witnessed between parents, by gender, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
No violence	68,2	64,8	73,2	80,8	84,1	81,5	74,4	74,5	77,4
Verbal abuse	19,6	24,0	22,2	9,6	9,1	12,8	14,6	16,5	17,6
Physical violence	12,3 [a]	11,2 [b]	4,5 [a,b]	9,6	6,7	5,6	11,0 [c]	9,0	5,1 [c]

a-c : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

The proportion of students reporting that they are victims of violence at home is also showing a downward trend, going from 22 % in 1991 to 15 % in 1996 and 13 % in 2002 (table 12). As was the case in 1991 and 1996, girls are more likely than boys to report that they are victims of violence at home (2002: 17 % of girls compared with 9 % of boys), though this number has decreased significantly since 1991.

TABLE 12 : Percentage of students (%) who indicate they are victims of parental violence, by gender, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	1991	1996	2002
Girls	27,9 [a,b]	16,1 [a]	16,6 [b]
Boys	14,9	14,3	9,4
Total	21,5 [c,d]	15,2 [c]	12,9 [d]

a-d : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

Parental supervision

While a majority of students (70 %) indicated that their parents really try to know where they go at night, only half (51 %) reported that they parents really try to know who their friends are (table 13A). A little over one third (39 %) of students reported that they parents really try to know what they do with their free time, while one quarter (28 %) believed that their parents really try to know what they do after school. Girls were significantly more likely than boys to indicate that their parents really try to know where they go at night (79 % compared with 59 %) and where they go after school (45 % compared with 32 %). Less than half of students indicated that their parents really *do* know where they go at night (46 %), and who their friends are (43 %), while half of them (50 %) said their parents really know where they go after school and 28 % felt that their parents really knew what they do with their free time (table 13B). No gender differences were found in proportions of students reporting that their parents really know what they are up to.

TABLE 13A: Percentage of students (%) who answered that their parents *really try to know...*, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Who their friends are	54,6	45,8	50,5
Where they go at night	79,3 [a]	58,6 [a]	69,6
What they do in their free time	28,1	27,1	27,6
Where they go after school	44,5 [b]	31,8 [b]	38,5

a-b : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

TABLE 13B: Percentage of students (%) who answered that their parents *really know...*, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Who their friends are	43,8	41,7	42,8
Where they go at night	48,4	43,8	46,2
What they do in their free time	28,0	26,9	27,5
Where they go after school	52,8	46,4	49,8

In 2002, less than half of students (43 %) reported a high level of parental supervision, while 41 % reported a moderate level (table 14). One in six students (16 %) reported a low level of parental supervision. Girls were significantly more likely than boys to report a high level of parental supervision (49 % compared with 37 %).

TABLE 14 : Distribution of students (%) according to the level of parental supervision, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Low	14,7	18,2	16,4
Moderate	36,4	45,3	40,6
High	48,8 [a]	36,5 [a]	43,0

a : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

Most students (91 %) have curfew on weekdays, fewer than 10 % do not (table 15). Boys are significantly more likely than girls to report that they are allowed out until 11 pm or that they do not have curfew. On weekends, nearly a third (32 %) of students indicate that they do not have curfew, while another 27 % indicate that they are allowed out until 1 am (table 16). Boys are significantly more likely than girls to indicate that they have no curfew.

TABLE 15 : Distribution of students (%) according to how late they are allowed out on weekdays, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Not allowed out	7,9	6,8	7,4
Before dark	18,6 [a]	10,4 [a]	14,7
Before 9 pm	33,0	25,0	29,2
Before 10 pm	27,4	31,3	29,2
Before 11 pm	7,4 [b]	14,1 [b]	10,6
As late as they want	5,6 [c]	12,5 [c]	8,8

a-c : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

TABLE 16 : Distribution of students (%) according to how late they are allowed out on weekends, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Not allowed out	1,9	1,6	1,7
Before 9 pm	9,7	7,3	8,6
Before 11pm	34,3	27,1	30,9
Until 1 am	31,9 [a]	21,4 [a]	27,0
As late as they want	22,2 [b]	42,7 [b]	31,9

a-b : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

4 : School

School is the other major social context for adolescent socialization and development. Interactions with peers and teachers provide models for behaviour, as well as feedback for the development of identity. However, these interactions may also become sources of stress and difficulty.

Furthermore, adolescents' feelings and attitudes about school and teachers contribute to their academic success, as does parental involvement in their teenager's school life. As such, academic failure and negative attitudes create an environment where adolescents navigate through their high school education with great difficulty. Students who do not finish high school run a greater risk of social exclusion and poverty. They are also more likely to be involved with drug abuse, delinquent or violent behaviour, as well as to report poor health.

Method

Students were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with statements pertaining to attitudes about school subjects, importance of school for their future and parental involvement in their academic life.

Questions pertaining to academic standing, failure and career aspirations were used to determine students' risk of dropping out. For a more thorough description of the school attrition scale used in this study, readers are asked to refer to the original report *Styles de vie des jeunes du niveau secondaire en Outaouais, 1991, 1996, 2002.*

Results

While a majority of students (61 %) indicated that they like the subjects that they study in school, there has been a sharp decline in these numbers since 1991 when 78 % of students had agreed with that statement (compared with 68 % in 1996) (table 17). On the other hand, in 2002, more students agreed that most of their teachers make them want to learn as compared to 1996 (60 % compared with 54 %). Almost all students (97 %) agreed that education was necessary to get a good job and that their parents do encourage them to further their education (98 %).

TABLE 17 : Percentage of students (%) who "agree" or "totally agree" with statements pertaining to school, by gender, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
I like the subjects I study in school	81,4 [a,b]	69,7 [a]	61,2 [b]	73,6 [d]	65,5	59,9 [d]	77,6 [g,h]	67,6 [g]	60,5 [h]
Most of my teachers make me want to learn	58,5	54,0	54,2	63,3	54,4 [e]	65,5 [e]	60,8	54,2	60,0
Education is required to get a good job	97,8	94,6 [c]	98,5 [c]	98,9 [f]	93,1 [f]	95,7	98,3 [i]	93,8 [i]	97,1
My parents encourage me to continue my education	97,8	99,2	98,5	97,2	98,1	97,6	97,5	98,7	98,0
I have a clear idea of what I want to do for a living	-	-	64,2	-	-	73,8	-	-	69,0
I often have conflicts with my parents about my marks	-	-	57,2	-	-	57,0	-	-	57,1
My parents expect too much from me at school	-	-	44,3	-	-	41,5	-	-	42,9

a-i : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.
- : non available for 1991 and 1996.

About two thirds of students (69 %) indicate that they have a clear idea of what they want to do for a living. A little over one half of them (57 %) report that they often have conflicts with parents about their marks, while 43 % believe that their parents expect too much from them at school.

The decline in appreciation for school subjects is especially apparent for girls. In 1991, 81 % of them had reported that they liked subjects taught in school. In 2002, this number has dropped to 61 %. Boys are also less likely to report liking school subjects in 2002 (60 %) than they were in 1991 (74 %) and 1996 (66 %), though they are more likely to report that most teachers make them want to learn.

About half of students believe that teachers respect them (54 %) and agree that teachers encourage them when they have problems at school (50 %) (table 18). Less than one third, however, believe that teachers understand them (30 %). This last proportion has significantly decreased since 1996, when 43 % of students had indicated that their teachers understood them. This drop is especially evident among girls, where proportions of those who agreed with the statement went from 44 % in 1996 to 25 % in 2002. Boys, on the other hand, were significantly more likely to state that teachers encourage them when they have problems in 2002 than they were in 1996.

TABLE 18 : Percentage of students (%) who answered questions pertaining to their teachers by "Often" or "very often", by gender, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Teachers respect them	59,8	58,2	53,2	45,2	52,7	54,4	52,6	55,5	53,8
Teachers encourage them when they have problems at school	47,5	48,7	44,1	40,1 [c]	44,4 [d]	55,6 [c,d]	43,9	46,5	49,9
Teachers understand them	42,0 [a]	44,2 [b]	25,1 [a,b]	31,6	42,6	33,8	36,9	43,4 [e]	29,5 [e]

a-e : % with the same alphabetical exponent are significantly different.

In 2002, a majority of students (60 %) indicated that their parents often or sometimes attended parent-teacher meetings (table 19). This number has remained stable over the years.

TABLE 19 : Percentage of students (%) who indicate that their parents often or sometimes attend parent-teacher meetings, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	1991	1996	2002
Girls	68,1 [a]	52,3 [a]	61,3
Boys	61,6	63,0	59,4
Total	64,9	57,6	60,4

Over half of students (57 %) stated that marks were very important to them, while 40 % indicated that they were fairly important and 4 % felt that they were not important (table 20). No gender differences were found for this item.

TABLE 20 : Distribution of students (%) according to the importance they ascribe to school marks, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Not important	2,3	5,7	3,9
Fairly important	39,4	39,7	39,6
Very important	58,3	54,6	56,6

Most students (84 %) report that they are either average or above average students (table 21). One in ten believe that he or she is at the top of the class, while 4 % place themselves at the bottom. When asked about their average in English, a majority of students (61 %) indicated that their marks were passing to good, that is to say between 65 % and 84 % (table 22), while one in five (21 %) was either failing or at risk of failing. Boys were more likely than girls to report that their average in English was below 65 % (8 % compared with 2 %), while girls were more likely than boys to have averages of 85 % or more (23 % compared with 11 %).

TABLE 21 : Distribution of students (%) according to self-perceived academic standing, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Bottom of the class	3,2	5,2	4,1
Below average	11,5	13,0	12,2
Average	46,5	37,3	42,2
Above average	30,4	30,6	30,5
Top of the class	8,3	14,0	11,0

About half of students (52 %) received passing to good grades in Math, while one in four (28 %) were either failing or at risk of failing it. One fifth of students (21 %) had averages of 85 % or more in Math. Girls were significantly more likely than boys to receive a passing to good grade in Math (59 % compared with 44 %).

TABLE 22 : Distribution of students (%) according to their grade point average in English and Math, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
English			
Failing (below 55 %)	2,4	7,5	4,8
At risk of failing (between 55 % and 64 %)	13,6	20,3	16,8
Passing to good (between 65 % and 84 %)	60,7	61,0	60,8
Very good (85 % or higher)	23,3	11,2	17,6
Math			
Failing (below 55 %)	9,0	13,5	11,1
At risk of failing (between 55 % and 64 %)	16,0	17,2	16,6
Passing to good (between 65 % and 84 %)	58,5	44,3	51,7
Very good (85 % or higher)	16,5	25,0	20,5

Most students (83 %) have never failed a grade (table 23). One in six has failed one grade, while about 1 % has failed two or more grades. No significant gender differences were found for this item.

TABLE 23 : Percentage of students (%) who have failed a grade, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Never failed	85,7	79,8	82,9
Failed 1 grade	12,9	19,2	15,9
Failed 2 or more grades	1,4	1,0	1,2

Students had a variety of academic aspirations (table 24). About half (55 %) intend to go on to university, while 13 % want a college diploma. One in four students (24 %) indicate that they do not know how far they will go in their studies. Less than 1 % of students indicated that they wished to drop out. Boys were about three times more likely than girls to indicate that they aspired to a college diploma.

TABLE 24 : Distribution of students (%) according to their academic aspirations, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
High school diploma	5,1	5,7	5,4
Vocational school diploma	2,3	1,0	1,7
College diploma (Cegep)	7,4	20,1	13,4
University diploma	57,1	53,1	55,2
No further than current grade	0,5	1,0	0,7
Don't know	27,6	19,1	23,6

In 2002, two thirds of students (67 %) display a low risk of school attrition (dropping out). About one fifth of students present a moderate risk, while one in seven (14 %) presents a high risk of dropping out.

One third of students (31 %) reported that they had been disciplined three or more times for misbehaviour at school during the school year (table 25). Roughly the same number of students reported skipping school often, while one in five students (21 %) had been suspended or kicked out of school. These proportions have remained relatively stable since 1991. About 13 % of students reported that they had cheated on a test three or more times during the 2001-2002 school year. Boys were significantly more likely than girls to report having been disciplined (38 % of boys compared with 24 % of girls) and having been suspended from school

(28 % against 14 %) in 2002, though no significant gender differences were found for skipping school and cheating on exams.

TABLE 25 : Frequencies (%) for school misbehavior during current school year, by gender, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Disciplined (extra homework, detention, kicked out of class) three or more times	17,9	20,2	23,8	38,4	40,5	37,9	28,0	30,3	30,9
Skipped school often	24,9	28,9	27,2	39,0	27,5	30,4	31,8	28,2	28,9
Cheated on a test three times or more	–	–	12,9	–	–	12,6	–	–	12,7
Suspended or kicked out of school	9,8	17,4	13,8	32,6	35,6	28,0	20,9	26,3	21,0

- : non available for 1991 and 1996.

5 : Life Events and Daily Hassles

The rate of physiological and psychosocial change experienced during this developmental period renders adolescents especially susceptible to social pressure and environmental stressors. Accumulated hassles and stress cannot only affect a teenager's health, it may also impact on his or her life course. Stressful life events and daily hassles are correlated to such difficulties as psychological distress, depression, suicide, delinquent behaviour and drug abuse.

Method

A life events scale was created based on a review of the literature pertaining to this subject. In 2002, school marks were added to the list as a possible source of stress. Students indicated the degree to which these events preoccupied them in the last six months. Results for these items were grouped in three categories:

No stressful life events :	students did not experience a stressful event or were only somewhat preoccupied by such an event;
One or two events :	students experienced one or two events which greatly or wholly preoccupied them ;
Three events or more:	students experienced three or more events which greatly or wholly preoccupied them

Results

In 2002, more students were preoccupied by school marks than by any other hassle or life event (table 26). Nearly half (44 %) of students indicated that their marks had greatly or wholly preoccupied them in the last six months. One in five students (18 %) indicated having been preoccupied by loneliness and this number has significantly increased since 1996 (12 %). One in seven students (13 %) was preoccupied by a break-up, while one in eight had been stressed by their relationship with either their mother (12 %) or father (11 %). In 2002, students were three times less likely than in 1996 to report that sexuality was a source of stress (18 % compared with 6 %). They were also less likely than in 1996 to be greatly preoccupied by their family's financial problems (18 % compared with 11 %).

TABLE 26 : Frequencies (%) for stressful life events and situations, by gender, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Parent's separation or divorce	6,0	4,7	7,9	4,0	7,7	2,9	5,0	6,2	5,4
Loneliness	23,9	15,3	26,1	8,5	8,9	9,7	16,3	12,1	17,8
Break-up	23,0	13,1	18,3	5,6	7,5	8,7	14,4	10,3	13,4
Relationship with father	26,1	14,0	16,3	10,1	11,3	6,3	18,2	12,6	11,2
Relationship with mother	19,9	13,1	17,8	6,2	11,3	6,3	13,1	12,2	12,0
Health problem	11,4	11,9	13,9	5,1	6,3	6,8	8,3	9,1	10,3
Sexuality	25,1	20,3	5,4	20,2	16,2	6,8	22,7	18,3	6,1
Parent's remarriage	4,4	4,7	5,0	3,4	2,0	3,9	3,9	3,4	4,4
Family's financial problems	14,1	18,8	11,9	7,3	16,3	10,6	10,8	17,6	11,2
School marks	–	–	51,5	–	–	35,7	–	–	43,5
Other	19,8	41,3	6,4	9,6	10,2	9,1	14,8	26,6	7,8

- : non available for 1991 and 1996.

About half of students (53 %) experienced no stressful life event or hassle in 2002 (table 27). One in four (23 %) experienced one such event, while one in ten (10 %) experienced two, and one in seven (14 %) experienced three or more. Girls were less likely in 2002 to report experiencing three or more stressful events than in 1996 and 1991, while boys were less likely to report having experienced two such events.

TABLE 27 : Distribution of students (%) according to the number of stressful life events experienced in the previous 6 months, by gender, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total	
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	2002
None	38,0	45,0	42,9	62,7	58,2	62,6	50,1	52,8
1	20,7	20,0	22,7	18,6	17,6	23,3	19,7	23,0
2	13,6	15,4	15,8	9,0	15,6	4,4	11,4	10,0
3 or more	27,7	19,6	18,7	9,6	8,6	9,7	18,8	14,2

6 : Work and Leisure

Adolescent paid work has been the subject of much debate in recent years. While some paid work seems to have a beneficial impact on adolescents' organizational skills and school work, there appears to be a threshold in the number of hours worked which, once crossed, produces negative rather than positive outcomes. Working more than 15 hours per week during the school year is now seen by most researchers as being detrimental to adolescents' health, school performance and psychological well-being.

Other activities, referred to as drudgery, include chores and homework. While what little research has been done on chores does not establish benefits of performing these activities on adolescent development, homework undoubtedly impacts students' school performance. Students who complete their homework not only perform better in school, they also have a more positive attitude about it and are more likely to pursue post-secondary education.

Leisure activities offer further opportunity to develop social and cognitive skills, as well as to call upon one's creative potential. Adolescents involved with organized, structured activities outside school have been found less likely than those not engaged in such activities to be involved in substance abuse or delinquent behavior and more likely to succeed in school. Leisure activities such as watching television, playing video games or surfing the Internet offer little developmental challenge or opportunity for growth while fostering a sedentary lifestyle known to have negative consequences on adolescent health. Raves, which are a relatively new phenomenon in the region, were added to the questionnaire in part due to concern regarding the prevalence of synthetic drug use at these all-night parties.

Physical activity, on the other hand, is known to be beneficial to adolescents' health, psychological well-being, school performance and self-esteem.

Method

For a detailed description of the instruments used to measure variables pertaining to work and leisure, readers are asked to refer to the original report *Styles de vie des jeunes du secondaire en Outaouais, 1991, 1996, 2002.*

Results

Paid work

In 2002, about half of students (47 %) worked during the school year (table 28). This is a significant drop from proportions observed in previous years: in 1991, 70 % of students held a paid job and this number was roughly the same in 1996 (68 %). In 2002, students were also significantly less likely than in 1991 or 1996 to work between one and 10 hours per week, though roughly the same number as in those previous years

worked 11 hours or more per week. Changes observed in patterns for paid work were the same for both girls and boys.

TABLE 28 : Distribution of students (%) according to the number of hours of paid work per week, by gender, 1991, 1996, and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
None	35,1	32,3	51,0	23,6	31,2	55,3	29,5	31,7	53,2
Less than 6 hrs	31,9	32,3	19,2	23,0	28,9	16,5	27,5	30,6	17,8
6 to 10 hrs	14,1	23,5	15,2	24,7	19,8	13,1	19,3	21,6	14,1
11 to 15 hrs			4,0			3,4			3,7
16 to 20 hrs			6,1			8,7			7,4
11 to 20 hrs	13,5	8,8	10,1	20,2	15,2	12,1	16,8	12,0	11,1
21 hrs or more	5,4	3,1	4,5	8,4	4,9	2,9	6,9	4,0	3,7

Among those students who do work, about half (52 %) report sometimes or often feeling tired because of work. Girls were significantly more likely than boys to report than they often felt tired because of work (23 % of girls compared to 3 % of boys), while boys were more likely to report never feeling tired (data not presented).

Paid work during the school year has specific consequences on students' school life and psychological well being. In 2002, though 37 % of working students reported that they organize their time better because of work, about half (47 %) indicated that they had not done some school work because they were too tired, 36 % had had trouble concentrating in class, 22 % had fallen asleep during class and another 22 % had not felt like going to school anymore because of work. Nearly half (45 %) of working students also reported feeling irritable or being in a bad mood, while 26 % had felt discouraged or depressed. No significant differences between genders were found for these items.

Students who work indicate that they do so in order to be able to buy things that they really want (92 %), to gain experience in the work force (74 %), to be more independent (54 %) and to save up for post-secondary education (53 %) (table 29). One in four students (23 %) indicates that they have to work to help their family financially.

TABLE 29 : Frequencies (%) for reasons given for working during the school year, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
To be more independent	84,9	81,6	83,4
To pay for stuff I really need	93,3	89,7	91,7
To get job experience	91,5	86,2	89,1
To buy stuff I want (a car, clothes, going out)	97,2	95,5	96,4
To help my parents financially	51,9	44,8	48,7
To save up for my education	77,4	80,5	78,8
Other	5,7	19,3	11,9

Drudgery

The majority of students (65 %) reported that they spend between 1 and 5 hours per week on homework, while 7 % indicated that they don't spend any time on it (table 30). About 17 % of students reported spending between 6 and 10 hours a week on their homework and another 12 % spend more than 11 hours a week. Boys were three times more likely than girls to indicate that they spend no time on homework.

TABLE 30 : Distribution of students (%) according to number of hours spent on drudgery, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Doing schoolwork			
- None hr/week	3,7	10,5	6,9
- 1 to 2 hrs/week	33,2	30,5	31,9
- 3 to 5 hrs/week	35,5	30,0	32,9
- 6-10 hrs/week	18,0	14,7	16,5
- 11-20 hrs/week	6,0	9,5	7,6
- 21 hrs or more per week	3,7	4,7	4,2
Doing chores (e.g., housecleaning)			
- None hr/week	8,3	13,7	10,8
- 1 to 2 hrs/week	45,2	46,3	45,7
- 3 to 5 hrs/week	31,8	26,8	29,5
- 6-10 hrs/week	11,1	7,4	9,3
- 11-20 hrs/week	2,8	4,2	3,4
- 21 hrs or more per week	0,9	1,6	1,2

About half of students (46 %) report spending 1 to 2 hours per week on chores, while about a third (30 %) spend 3 to 5 hours. One in ten students reported doing no chores. No significant differences were found between genders for his item.

Leisure

One third of students (35 %) indicated that they attend cultural events such as a movie or a concert monthly (table 31). One fifth (20 %) never attend such events and another fifth (20 %) attend these events weekly. No significant gender differences were found for these items. Proportions of students who attend social events such as a party or dance were similar, with one third of students (36 %) attending these events monthly and one fifth (21 %) attending weekly. Girls were significantly more likely than boys to attend such social events weekly (26 % v. 15 %) while boys were significantly more likely to have never attended such events (29 % v. 16 %).

About half of students (48 %) are involved in an artistic activity such as music, art or theatre during the year (table 31). One in six students is involved in such activities on a weekly basis, while 8 % are involved on a monthly basis. Girls are significantly more likely than boys to be involved in such activities (56 % v. 40 %).

TABLE 31 : Distribution of students (%) according to time spent on various leisure activities, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
A cultural event (movie, concert)			
- Never	16,6	22,9	19,6
- Less than once a month	27,2	24,0	25,7
- About once a month	37,3	32,8	35,2
- About once a week or more	18,9	20,3	19,6
A social activity (party, dance, disco, etc.)			
- Never	16,2	28,5	22,0
- Less than once a month	18,5	24,9	21,5
- About once a month	39,4	31,6	35,7
- About once a week or more	25,9	15,0	20,8
An artistic activity (music, art, theater, etc.)			
- Never	44,3	60,4	52,0
- Less than once a month	28,8	18,8	24,0
- About once a month	7,1	8,3	7,7
- About once a week or more	19,8	12,5	16,3
Another activity (club, association, movement)			
- Never	54,2	61,5	57,7
- Less than once a month	14,2	13,0	13,6
- About once a month	12,3	6,8	9,7
- About once a week or more	19,3	18,8	19,1
A rave supervised by the police or other security			
- Never	88,9	85,5	87,3
- Less than once a month	7,4	6,2	6,8
- About once a month	3,2	5,7	4,4
- About once a week or more	0,5	2,6	1,5
An unsupervised rave			
- Never	91,2	85,9	88,7
- Less than once a month	5,6	7,3	6,4
- About once a month	3,2	3,6	3,4
- About once a week or more	0,0	3,1	1,5

Less than half of students (42 %) are involved in another structured activity such as a club or association. No significant gender differences were found for this item.

About 13 % of students have attended a rave supervised by police or other security since the beginning of the school year, while another 11 % have attended unsupervised raves. Students who attend these events do so on a monthly or less than monthly basis. Once again, no gender differences were found.

In 2002, one third of students spend 3 to 5 hours a week watching television, while 25 % spend 6 to 10 hours a week in front of the small screen (table 32). About one fifth of students spend 11 to 20 hours per week, and 8 % spend 21 or more hours per week watching television. No significant gender differences were found for this item.

TABLE 32 : Distribution of students (%) according to time spent on various leisure activities, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Watching television or videos			
- None hr/week	4,1	2,6	3,4
- 1 to 2 hrs/week	13,8	12,6	13,2
- 3 to 5 hrs/week	34,6	29,3	32,1
- 6-10 hrs/week	24,0	26,2	25,0
- 11-20 hrs/week	15,7	20,9	18,1
- 21 hrs or more per week	7,8	8,4	8,1
Playing video games on a console or computer			
- None hr/week	53,7	14,1	35,0
- 1 to 2 hrs/week	23,8	31,8	27,6
- 3 to 5 hrs/week	9,3	21,4	15,0
- 6-10 hrs/week	8,4	12,5	10,3
- 11-20 hrs/week	3,3	11,5	7,1
- 21 hrs or more per week	1,4	8,9	4,9
Listening to music			
- None hr/week	0,9	8,3	4,4
- 1 to 2 hrs/week	16,1	27,6	21,5
- 3 to 5 hrs/week	16,5	17,7	17,1
- 6-10 hrs/week	21,6	12,0	17,1
- 11-20 hrs/week	18,8	16,1	17,6
- 21 hrs or more per week	26,1	18,2	22,4

Time spent on video games does vary greatly according to gender. While one third of all students report spending no time on video games, that proportion is mainly attributable to girls, since 54 % of them indicated

spending no time on video games, as compared to 14 % of boys. While about the same proportion of both boys and girls spend 1 to 2 hours per week playing video games, boys are much more likely than girls to spend 3 hours or more on this leisure activity. In fact, one in five boys spends more than 11 hours a week on video games, and one in ten spends 21 hours or more per week on this activity.

Almost all students (95 %) report spending some time listening to music. Students are evenly distributed across all time categories for this activity, though boys are significantly more likely than girls to spend 1 to 2 hours per week listening to music, while girls are significantly more likely to spend 6 to 10 hours on this activity.

Physical activity

The most popular types of physical activity for students are walking (64 %), jogging or running (57 %), basketball (47 %), cycling (46 %), dancing and strength training (41 %) (table 33). Popularity of activities vary depending on students' gender, with girls significantly more likely than boys to be involved in aerobic exercise, jazz or classical ballet and walking. Boys, on the other hand, are significantly more likely than girls to be involved in skateboarding, strength training, and hockey.

TABLE 33 : Frequencies (%) for various physical activities, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Cycling	41,9	50,3	45,9
In-line skating	21,1	18,7	20,0
Skateboarding	11,1	23,8	17,1
Jogging or running	59,4	54,7	57,2
Physical conditioning	34,1	47,7	40,5
Aerobic classes or exercise	20,7	13,0	17,1
Swimming	18,0	19,2	18,5
Badminton, tennis	12,4	17,6	14,8
Karate or judo	7,8	10,9	9,2
Jazz or classical ballet	11,5	4,7	8,3
Dancing (partying with friends)	57,3	32,6	45,7
Gymnastics	9,7	5,7	7,8
Basketball	43,3	51,3	47,1
Volleyball	25,8	25,4	25,6
Soccer	34,6	36,5	35,5
Hockey	10,1	27,1	18,1
Hiking	14,7	16,1	15,4
Walking	71,0	57,0	64,4
Other	6,4	9,8	8,0

Excluding physical education classes at school, two thirds of students (65 %) indicated that they were engaged in at least 7 sessions of physical activity per week (table 34). About one in five students (18 %) was engaged in 3 to 6 sessions, while 17 % were engaged in 2 sessions or less per week. Boys were significantly more likely than girls to report being involved in 14 or more sessions of physical activity per week, while girls were twice as likely to be involved in 3 to 6 sessions. Fully half of students (50 %) were physically active 6 or 7 days per week, while 29 % were active 3 to 5 days per week (table 35). One in five students was active 2 days or fewer per week. Boys were significantly more likely than girls to be physically active 6 to 7 days per week, while girls were more likely to be active 3 to 5 days per week.

TABLE 34 : Distribution of students (%) according to *number of physical activity sessions* over 7 day period, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
0-2 sessions	16,1	18,1	17,1
3 to 6 sessions	25,3	10,4	18,3
7 to 13 sessions	30,9	31,6	31,2
>=14 sessions	27,6	39,9	33,4

TABLE 35 : Distribution of students (%) according to *number of days* they were physically active in a 7 day period, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
0 to 2 days	20,7	22,8	21,7
3 to 5 days	35,9	20,2	28,5
6 to 7 days	43,3	57,0	49,8

A majority of students (77 %) reported being engaged in vigorous physical activity (an activity which makes students sweat and breathe hard for at least 20 minutes) three times or more per week (table 36). Boys were significantly more likely than girls to report such activity (83 % v. 72 %).

TABLE 36 : Percentage of students (%) involved in vigourous physical activity at least three days in a 7 day period, by gender, 2002

Girls	Boys	Total
72,4	82,5	77,0

A composite index comprised of the number of sessions of physical activity, the number of days students were physically active and the number of times they were engaged in vigorous physical activity was created by Kino Quebec's Scientific Committee. It established that the minimum requirement for adolescents be either 6 to 7 days per week of being physically active combined with 3 or more sessions of vigorous physical activity or 7 or more sessions of physical activity per week combined with 3 or more sessions of vigorous physical activity (table 37). Almost half of students (47 %) met the first requirement, while 62 % of them met the second (table 37). Boys were significantly more likely than girls to meet either of these requirements.

TABLE 37 : Percentage of students (%) who meet the requirements for physical activity, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Composite index of number of days active and number of days of vigorous activity	39,3	56,2	47,0
Composite index of number of physical activity sessions and number of days of vigorous activity	55,0	69,3	61,7

Internet use

Most students who use Internet do so to email messages (90 %), to chat online with friends (82 %) and to watch videos or download music (76 %). Less than half of students (43 %) play games online. One in five students (22 %) visit pornography sites and roughly the same number (19 %) have sexual conversations online. Boys are significantly more likely than girls to play games online and account for the most of the students who visit porn sites. Nearly half of students (42 %) report that they often or very often receive advertisements for pornographic sites while surfing the Internet, with boys more likely than girls to report such a situation (49 % v. 37 %).

One third (31 %) of students spend less than 30 minutes surfing the Web on weekends, while another third (29 %) spend more than two hours (table 38). No gender differences were found for this item. Students spend slightly more time on the Internet on weekdays. About half of students (52 %) spend some time on the Internet everyday. Nearly half of students (45 %) are involved in 4 or more activities on the Internet, while another 43 % are involved in 2 or 3 activities (table 39). Boys are significantly more likely than girls to be involved in 4 or more activities on the Internet, while girls are more likely to be involved in 2 or 3 activities.

TABLE 38 : Distribution of students (%) according to time spent online, by gender, 2002

		Girls	Boys	Total
Weekdays				
	Under 30 minutes	26,7	25,3	26,0
	Between 30 minutes and an hour	19,0	15,6	17,4
	Between 1 and 2 hours	18,6	28,0	23,0
	More than 2 hours	35,7	31,2	33,6
Weekends				
	Under 30 minutes	31,9	29,6	30,8
	Between 30 minutes and an hour	21,9	17,7	19,9
	Between 1 and 2 hours	17,6	23,7	20,5
	More than 2 hours	28,6	29,0	28,8

TABLE 39 : Distribution of students (%) according to the number of online activities, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
No activities	6,1	4,2	5,2
One activity	7,5	7,8	7,6
2 or 3 activities	53,7	30,2	42,6
4 activities or more	32,7	57,8	44,6

One third of students (34 %) report that their parents impose a time limit on their Internet use. One in five students (26 %) reports that his or her parents often or very often keep an eye on what they are doing on Internet, while another 36 % indicate that their parents never watch over their Internet use (table 40).

TABLE 40 : Distribution of students (%) who indicate that parents supervise their use of Internet, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Never	33,7	39,1	36,3
Rarely	39,6	35,3	37,6
Often or very often	26,7	25,5	26,2

7 : Tattoos and Body Piercing

While tattoos have been around for a long time, until recently they were mainly associated with marginalised populations (bikers, inmates, etc). At the present, however, they have become mainstream. Tattoos are considered a risk factor for contracting blood-borne diseases such as hepatitis and may also lead to complications such as infection or ink allergies. Body piercing is a relatively new trend and is associated with the same types of complications as tattoos.

Method

Variables pertaining to tattoo and body piercing practices among adolescents were measured using the Body Art Survey developed by Greif, Hewitt and Armstrong (1999). A more detailed description of this instrument is available in the original report *Styles de vie des jeunes du secondaire en Outaouais, 1991, 1996, 2002.*

It should be noted that as the proportion of Anglophone students who have tattoos or body piercings is small, dividing these proportions further does not provide quantities sufficient for valid analysis. As such, only the prevalence of these phenomena are presented here. A more thorough investigation of the phenomena, including motivation for body art, instruments used, parental consent, and so on, was completed in the original report.

Results

Roughly 7 % of students have ever had a tattoo and one in four students (27 %) has their body pierced (other than the ear lobe). Girls are significantly more likely than boys to have been tattooed (9 % v. 4 %). They are four times more likely to have a body piercing than boys (41 % v. 11 %) (Table 41).

TABLE 41 : Percentage of students (%) who have tattoos or body piercings (other than ear lobe), by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Tattoos	9,4	3,6	6,7
Body Piercings	41,3	10,6	26,7

The majority of students who have been tattooed only have one tattoo, while 12 % have 2 tattoos and another 12 % have 3 or more. The majority of students with body piercings only have one, while 15 % have 2 and 16 % have three or more (table 42).

TABLE 42 : Distribution (%) of tattooed students and pierced students according to number of tattoos or piercings, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Number of Tattoos			
1	77,8	71,4	76,0
2	11,1	14,3	12,0
3 or more	11,1	14,3	12,0
Number of Piercings			
1	68,8	66,7	68,4
2	13,8	22,2	15,3
3 or more	17,5	11,1	16,3

8 : Substance Use (tobacco, alcohol, and drugs)

The link between tobacco and cancer and heart disease is well established. It is also known that smokers initiate this behaviour during adolescence. The prevalence of teenage smoking has increased steadily in the last decade both in the United States and Canada, where one in four adolescents smoke.

Alcohol and drug use and abuse also disrupts adolescent development and poses certain dangers to their health. While drug use had decreased somewhat during the nineties, recent research shows a resurgence in rates of drug use among adolescents. Marijuana, metamphetamines, hallucinogens and synthetic drugs such as MDMA (Extasy) are particularly popular with teenagers.

Method

A detailed description of instruments used to collect data for substance use and abuse is presented in the original report *Styles de vie des jeunes du secondaire en Outaouais, 1991, 1996, 2002.*

Results

Tobacco

In 2002, one quarter (23 %) of students smoke. One in seven students (14 %) smokes regularly, while 9 % smoke occasionally (table 43). This is a significant decrease from the rate of regular smokers observed in 1996 (20 %). Proportions of non smokers increased significantly, going form 50 % in 1996 to 59 % in 2002. These changes may be attributed to changes in girls' rates of smoking. The drop in the rate of regular smokers is especially apparent for girls, where the proportion of regular smokers went from 24 % in 1996 to 15 % in 2002, while the proportion of non smokers went from 42 % of girls in 1996 to 56 % in 2002. No significant differences were observed for boys.

TABLE 43 : Distribution of students (%) according to their smoking habits, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Regular	22,5	24,0	15,1	19,8	16,4	12,5	21,2	20,2	13,8
Occasional	16,5	14,7	10,1	10,7	9,9	7,5	13,6	12,3	8,8
Ex-smokers	19,8	19,0	18,6	11,3	15,3	18,5	15,6	17,1	18,5
Have never smoked	41,2	42,2	56,3	58,2	58,4	61,5	49,6	50,4	58,9

Over half of students (56 %) reported that they were allowed to smoke on school property, while one in 10 students did not know and 32 % indicated that they were not allowed to smoke on school grounds (table 44). Half of students (53 %) indicated that their parents did not allow them to smoke cigarettes, while 40 % said that their parents *did* allow it (table 45).

TABLE 44 : Distribution of students (%) according to school policy permitting smoking on school grounds, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Yes	56,2	56,0	56,1
No	33,6	30,4	32,1
I don't know	10,1	13,6	11,8

TABLE 45 : Distribution of students (%) according to whether or not they have their parents' permission to smoke, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Yes	41,1	37,1	39,6
No	53,6	51,4	52,7
I don't smoke	5,4	11,4	7,7

A majority of students (58 %) felt that their parents would completely disagree if they found out that they smoked. One in five students felt that their parents would disagree, while 7 % felt that their parents would not care and 4 % felt that their parents would agree. One in ten students (11 %) was unsure of their parents' reaction if they found out about their smoking.

Alcohol

In 2002, the majority of students (55 %) drink alcohol : 15 % of students drink on a regular basis (weekly), while 40 % drink occasionally and 26 % had never had alcohol (table 46). While rates of regular drinkers have significantly decreased since 1991, rates of occasional drinkers have significantly increased and rates of non drinkers have decreased. Boys are more likely than girls to report that they drink on a weekly basis, while girls are more likely than boys to drink occasionally.

TABLE 46 : Distribution of students (%) according to their alcohol consumption, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Regular drinkers (weekly)	21,4	14,3	11,8	23,7	22,3	18,4	22,6	18,3	15,2
Occasional (less than weekly)	34,1	44,8	45,3	28,2	34,8	34,0	31,2	39,8	39,6
Ex-drinkers	15,4	12,7	15,8	7,3	14,1	23,3	11,4	13,4	19,6
Never drank	29,1	28,2	27,1	40,7	28,9	24,3	34,8	28,5	25,7

Marijuana

In 2002, one third of students smoke pot: 13 % of students smoke it on a weekly basis, while 17 % smoke it occasionally (table 47). The proportion of students who have never smoked marijuana has decreased significantly, going from 74 % in 1991 to 67 % in 1991 and finally to 57 % in 2002. Boys are almost twice as likely as girls to be regular users of marijuana (17 % v. 9 %).

TABLE 47 : Distribution of students (%) according to their marijuana consumption, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Regular	2,2	5,8	9,4	5,1	12,4	16,7	3,6	9,1	13,1
Occasional	7,1	17,3	17,8	13,0	9,7	15,2	10,0	13,5	16,5
Ex-users	13,7	10,8	14,9	11,3	11,2	11,8	12,5	11,0	13,3
Never used	77,0	66,2	57,9	70,6	66,8	56,4	73,9	66,5	57,1

About one quarter of students (27 %) report smoking pot at school or on the way to school in 2002 (table 48).

TABLE 48 : Percentage of students (%) who report smoking marijuana at school or on their way to school, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	1991	1996	2002
Girls	21,1	32,8	28,6
Boys	28,2	35,0	26,5
Total	25,9	33,9	27,4

Hallucinogens

In 2002, 7 % of students used hallucinogens. This is the same rate as observed in 1996, but a significant increase from rates in 1991. One in ten students has used hallucinogens but no longer uses them, while 82 % have never used them (table 49).

TABLE 49 : Distribution of students (%) according to their consumption of hallucinogens, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Current user	2,2	7,3	7,0	3,4	6,9	7,4	2,8	7,1	7,2
Former user	6,1	11,6	7,0	5,1	7,7	13,7	5,6	9,6	10,4
Nerver used	91,7	81,1	86,0	91,5	85,4	78,9	91,6	83,3	82,4

Multiple drug use

Rates of multiple drug use have remained relatively stable since 1991. In 2002, 8 % of students were using a combination of drugs on a regular basis (table 50).

TABLE 50 : Percentage of students (%) who are multiple drug users, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Moderate multiple drug use	2,7	6,9	3,9	4,5	3,4	5,3	3,6	5,1	4,6
Major multiple drug use	0,0	2,7	3,0	1,7	4,2	2,4	0,8	3,4	2,7
Total	2,7	9,6	6,9	6,2	7,6	7,7	4,4	8,6	7,3

Consequences of alcohol and drug use

Proportions of students who reported experiencing negative consequences from using alcohol or drugs have remained stable since 1991. One in five students (20 %) presents an at-risk profile of drug and alcohol use, having experienced 5 or more consequences of substance use in the last year (data not shown).

9 : Violent and Delinquent Behaviour

Violent behaviour among adolescents occurs mostly at school. In 1999, between 20 and 40 % of Canadian students had been victims of violence at school. Intimidation, harassment and bullying are more often associated with boys than with girls and often coexist with a number of psychosocial difficulties such as poverty, drug use and poor school performance.

Adolescents who associate with gangs, some of which are involved in illegal activities, are also more likely to be involved in violent behaviour.

Method

A detailed description of instruments used to document violent behaviour is available in the original report *Styles de vie des jeunes du secondaire en Outaouais, 1991, 1996, 2002.*

Results

In 2002, a majority of students (78%) indicated that they had been insulted (called vulgar names) in school, a slight increase from 1996 (table 51). About 37 % of students report that they had been threatened with physical violence or the destruction of their property, while 36 % reported having been hit by other students and 6 % that they had been kept from going to school by other students. These proportions have remained relatively stable since 1996. As was the case in 1996, roughly one in ten students (12 %) reported unwanted sexual touching in 2002. One in ten students (12 %) reported carrying a weapon to school, with boys being three times more likely than girls to report this behaviour (17 % v. 6 %).

In 2002, 16 % of students reported having been involved in physical fights with other students. Boys were significantly more likely than girls to be involved in fights at school (21 % v. 12 %).

TABLE 51 : Percentage of students (%) who have been victims or perpetrators of violence at school, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	Girls		Boys		Total	
	1996	2002	1996	2002	1996	2002
Been insulted	73,5	72,6	72,0	82,4	72,7	77,6
Been threatened with being hit or having a belonging destroyed	38,8	28,9	41,8	44,0	40,3	36,5
Unwanted sexual advances	18,0	21,4	7,4	2,9	12,8	12,0
Been hit	22,3	29,4	41,9	43,0	32,1	36,3
Been offered money to do something illegal	5,0	24,5	7,0	15,9	14,8	11,5
Been kept from going to school by other students	3,5	6,5	7,7	6,3	5,6	6,4
Been threatened if didn't do something illegal	0,8	0,5	7,7	3,9	4,2	2,2
Carried a weapon	7,3	5,5	24,1	17,4	15,7	11,5
Used a weapon to threaten another student	1,9	0,5	7,3	3,9	4,6	2,2
Used a weapon to hurt another student	1,2	1,0	5,4	3,4	3,3	2,2

In 2002, about one in six students had been involved in at least three delinquent acts in the last year, while 42 % reported having been involved in 1 or 2 such acts (table 52). Boys were four times more likely than girls to report involvement in at least three delinquent acts (23 % v. 5 %). The proportion of students reporting that they had stolen goods worth more than $100 decreased significantly since 1996, going from 13 % to 5 %, though 40 % of students indicated that they had stolen goods worth less than $100. One third of students (34 %) report having physically assaulted someone, while 22 % indicate that they had committed acts of vandalism.

TABLE 52 : Distribution of students (%) according to number of delinquent acts in the last year, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
None	51,1	48,6	49,0	38,4	34,5	39,4	44,8	41,6	44,1
1 or 2	44,0	41,3	46,0	43,5	36,8	38,0	43,7	39,1	42,0
At least 3	4,9	10,0	5,0	18,1	28,7	22,6	11,4	19,3	13,9

Half (50 %) of students reported belonging to a gang in 2002, and of this number, 35 % reported that their gang had been involved in illegal activities.

10 : Gambling

Since they have become sanctioned by the state, gambling activities have gained increasing legitimacy in Canadian society. The present generation of adolescents is the first to have grown up in an era of socially accepted and state promoted gambling activity. While many teenagers are merely experimenting with gambling, some are at risk of developing gambling problems and a small minority may become addicted or pathological gamblers.

Method

A detailed description of the South Oaks Gambling Screen –Revised Adolescent scale (SOGS-RA) used in this study is presented in the original report *Styles de vie des jeunes du secondaire en Outaouais, 1991, 1996, 2002.*

It should be noted that as the prevalence of gambling problems is very low, it could not be established with as small a sample as the one presented here. For prevalence rates in the total adolescent population, we refer readers to the original report mentioned above.

Results

About one third of students (35 %) indicate that they buy lottery tickets, while 29 % play cards for money and 27 % bet money on sports (table 53). Betting on games of skill such as pool or golf is practiced by 26 % of students. Boys are significantly more likely than girls to engage in these gambling activities, with the exception of the lottery, where no gender difference is found.

TABLE 53 : Frequencies (%) for various gambling activities, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Play cards for money	20,7	38,9	29,3
Flip (heads or tails) for money	17,5	17,6	17,6
Bet on games of skill like pool, golf or bowling	17,5	35,8	26,0
Bet on sports	17,1	38,7	27,3
Bet on horse racing, dog racing or other animal racing	3,2	6,2	4,6
Play bingo for money	20,3	15,1	17,8
Play dice (craps) for money	5,5	9,3	7,3
Play slot machines, video poker or other machines for money	5,1	8,9	6,9
Buy lottery tickets (scratch cards, 6/49, mini, etc.)	36,2	33,5	35,0

Nearly half of students (43 %) never gamble while about a third (29 %) gamble less than once a month. One in seven students (13 %) gambles at least weekly, though boys are significantly more likely than girls to report such behaviour.

In 2002, one in seven students who has gambled (14 %) reports having felt guilty about gambling or losing money, while one in eight (12 %) has gambled more money than they had intended to. Boys were significantly more likely than girls to report that they had felt guilty about their gambling habits (19 % v. 8 %).

11: Psychological Distress and Suicide Ideation

Psychological distress is a concept used to describe an often relatively minor psychologically perturbed state. Items measuring psychological distress are associated with emotional distress though not the basis for any particular diagnosis. Psychological distress may vary depending on such factors as self-esteem, life events, social support, parenting style, drug and alcohol use and suicide ideation.

Emergence of suicide ideation is associated with social, family and individual variables. For example, academic difficulties and drug abuse become a risk factor when they result in social rejection. Suicide ideation is also inversely proportional to parental responsiveness and warmth. Girls are known to have a higher rate of suicide ideation and attempts than boys, who have a higher rate of completed suicides.

Method

Psychological distress was measured using an abridged version of Ilfeld's Psychiatric Symptom Index (PSI). A high level of psychological distress refers to the highest scores (32 to 55), a moderate level refers to a moderate score (27 to 31), while a low level refers to the lowest scores (14 to 26).

In 2002, the number of items used to measure suicidal behaviour was reduced. Consequently, only the prevalence of suicide attempts is available for 1996 and 2002.

Results

In 2002, the majority of students present a low level of psychological distress, one in five students (20 %) presents a high level and another 20 % presents a moderate level. These numbers have remained relatively stable since 1991. Girls are twice as likely as boys to present a high level of psychological distress (26 % v. 13 % in 2002) while boys are significantly more likely to present a low level (73 % v. 50 %) (table 54).

TABLE 54 : Distribution of students (%) according to level of psychological distress, by gender, 1991, 1996 and 2002

	Girls			Boys			Total		
	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002	1991	1996	2002
Low	42,4	44,9	49,8	71,4	64,1	72,5	56,5	54,5	61,3
Moderate	25,5	23,2	23,9	18,3	21,0	14,5	22,0	22,1	19,1
High	32,1	31,9	26,4	10,3	14,9	13,0	21,4	23,4	19,6

One in four students (25 %) has thought of committing suicide at some point in their life, while 17 % have had suicidal thoughts in the last year and 8 % have had serious suicidal thoughts (where they planned

when and how to commit suicide) (table 55). Girls were significantly more likely than boys to have suicidal thoughts in all three cases. In 2002, 7 % of students had ever attempted suicide (compared to 11 % in 1996). Again, girls were significantly more likely than boys to have attempted suicide (11 % v. 2 %).

TABLE 55 : Frequencies (%) for suicide ideation and attempts, by gender, 2002

	Girls	Boys	Total
Lifetime suicidal thoughts	32,8	16,9	24,8
Suicidal thoughts in past year	23,4	10,3	16,8
Serious suicidal thoughts in past year	12,6	3,9	8,2
Lifetime suicide attempts (1996)	17,9	3,9	10,9
Lifetime suicide attempts (2002)	10,9	2,4	6,6

Conclusion

Rates of most internalised maladjustment difficulties have remained stable since 1996 or have improved (as is the case for suicidal behaviour). Rates of violence, be it family violence or violence at school have also diminished since 1996. Prevalence of drug use has remained fairly stable, with the exception of marijuana, which is on the rise.

Students have a poorer attitude about school in 2002 than they had in 1996 and 1991, though many have high academic aspirations. Self-esteem in girls also seems poorer in 2002 than it was in 1996, though it remains unchanged for boys.

It may be concluded that overall, the majority of adolescents succeed in developing prosocial, healthy behaviours.

Annex

Questionnaire 2002